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The Journal of Educational Sociology

A Magazine of Theory and Practice

CHILD GUIDANCE

HARVEY W. ZORBAUGH, *Issue Editor*

Editorial	341
The Problem Child in the Jersey City Elementary Schools <i>Louise May Snyder</i>	343
Measured Differences Between Problem and Nonproblem Children in a Public-School System <i>Mildred L. Fisher</i>	353
A Survey of Predelinquent Children in the Schools of Ten Mid- western Cities <i>Herbert D. Williams</i>	365
The Transition from Home to School <i>Rhea Kay Boardman</i>	371
7 The Activity Program in the Newark Schools from a Mental- Hygiene Point of View <i>Helen Trolan</i>	379
Teachers' Personalities and the Problems of Children <i>Lois A. Meredith</i>	387
Recent Literature	397
Research Projects and Methods in Educational Sociology	399
Book Reviews	400

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The JOURNAL of EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

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EDITORIAL

We are only beginning to realize the implications of the social revolution that is quietly taking place in this country, only beginning to realize that this revolution is destined to shake our American way of life to its very foundations as it replaces an outworn laissez-faire ideal of rugged individualism with a new emphasis on social responsibility and group living. It is becoming evident that life will demand of the oncoming generation of youth an increased personal stability and sense of social obligation as it takes its place in a world of shifting values and relationships. It is further evident that the ability of youth to meet the demands of a new social order will depend in large part upon the guidance it receives in our public schools. This guidance must proceed from an educational philosophy that looks upon the adequate organization of the child's emotional life, and the development of the child's social adaptability, as the primary goals of educational experience. Child guidance is assuming a new importance in our educational thinking.

The current number of *The Journal of Educational Sociology* concerns itself with some of the problems involved in the guidance of the child in the public school. It is prepared, not from an academic point of view, but out of the everyday experience of schoolmen. The first two articles, by Snyder and Fisher, probe the group differences between those children who are adjusting, and who are not adjusting to school experience. Williams's article is an interesting

background against which to estimate how typical may be certain of the findings of Snyder and Fisher. Their findings indicate the extreme importance to the child's ultimate personal and social adequacy of his first school experiences. Boardman's article discusses the transition from home to school, and the factors in the child's preschool experience which make this transition difficult. Trolan's article presents an experiment in the Newark schools, aimed at lessening the difficulties of this transition through modification of curriculum and procedure in the early grades. Meredith's article analyzes the teacher's personality as a factor in the process of the child's school adjustment. The book-review department offers a bibliography of outstanding books of the year in the field of guidance, books which it is hoped will be placed upon the shelves of every school library.

HARVEY ZORBAUGH

A SPECIAL OFFER

The Menace of Narcotic Drugs, by E. George Payne, 294 pages, 5 x 7½ (list price, \$1.50) will be given at no cost to new subscribers to *The Journal of Educational Sociology*, or to old subscribers who renew *now*, for a later expiration date, at the \$3.00 rate. Address communications to the Secretary, *The Journal of Educational Sociology*, 26 Washington Place, New York, N. Y.

THE PROBLEM CHILD IN THE JERSEY CITY ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

LOUISE MAY SNYDER

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This is one of a series of investigations undertaken by New York University to analyze the criterion against which the schools identify children as problems. The setting for this particular study was the Jersey City elementary schools from which a sample comprising 13,632 pupils was discriminatingly chosen in consultation with the school authorities. In this sample, which is a reliable cross section of the school population, are eleven schools of diverse economic, cultural, and racial background.

Seven of the schools are designated by the administration as preëminently of native extraction, one of which is mostly colored. Two contain a majority of first-generation Polish students, while three draw their numbers from children of Italian-born parents. Their socio-economic position also seems representative. Three of them are reported to be above average, three average, and the remaining five fall below this standard. Although at first glance this sample may appear to be overweighted on the lower end of the economic scale, it reflects the conditions found in Jersey City as a whole.

INCIDENCE OF PROBLEM CHILDREN

From this group, 329 teachers reported 829 pupils or 6.9 per cent of the enrollment as problem children. Out of this number, 361 were designated as serious behavior problems.

An examination of the percentage of problems listed in the several types of schools uncovered some interesting results. It was found that the highest incidence of problem children (12.7 per cent of the enrollment) was reported

for the school predominantly colored. Ranking second in percentage of problems were the two schools which are below average economic status and of Polish extraction (8.7 per cent of total enrollment). The two schools of Italian background and of below average economic status ranked next, 7.6 per cent. The lowest incidence appeared in the group of schools representing the homes of native extraction, those of average economic status producing 4.8 per cent in comparison to the above average ones which listed only 3.1 per cent. Thus it seems that nationality and economic status, to a large degree, affect the percentage of problems found among school children.

Again measuring the number of problem children as they appear in the eight grades, it was found that the largest percentage was recorded for the fifth and sixth grades (8.7 and 9.1 percent, respectively). From this peak the proportion of problems descends about two per cent on both sides with only 4.4 per cent of the second grade and 6.2 of the eighth grade reported.

The number of boys reported was 688 or 83.0 per cent of the 829 problem cases in contrast to 141 girls. As might be expected, the boys formed an even higher percentage of the total when the study was confined merely to the serious problems. Of these 361 cases, 88.9 per cent were boys.

TEACHERS' DESCRIPTION OF PROBLEM CHILDREN

From this general picture of problem children as they are marked off from their fellows by teachers, the investigation attempted a more detailed interpretation. This was made possible through the descriptive paragraphs written by the teachers for each of the cases reported as serious. The complaints, to a great extent, were found to be those based upon the more aggressive types of behavior. "Annoying others" was mentioned 150 times and "inattention" 100, while "sensitiveness" and "fearfulness" were noted but three and one times, respectively. There were some 34 different traits listed by the 329 teachers various numbers

of times so that the total number was 1,118 or about three per problem child.

Since the main criterion upon which this investigation was based is the teachers' designation of, and reaction to, the problem child, the personnel and attitudes of the group of teachers reporting were examined. It was disclosed that 18.8 per cent of the number had studied mental hygiene within the past seven years. These teachers saw more problems in their students and considered only 60.8 per cent of them well adjusted in comparison to 65.4 per cent so considered by the others.

Most of the teachers list counseling, scolding, or some type of punishment as the method most often used in dealing with these problems. Only a small percentage of them specified reliance on any type of clinical or scientific study. Furthermore, the suggestions made as to the needs of the pupils were largely those of the disciplinary type. Some of the teachers felt that if the child could be "made to realize that instant obedience is necessary," or inculcated with fear against breaking school regulations, the problem would be solved.

Looking behind these definite suggestions for the treatment of problem cases and the types of conduct listed as serious, an attempt was made to measure objectively the teachers' attitudes by means of the Wickman Teachers' Attitude Scale.¹ The results are almost identical to those of Wickman, Yourman,² and the many other investigators who have used the scales for teachers in many parts of the country. Moreover, they are similar to the findings of Stodgill³ concerning parents' attitudes. It is quite clear that both teachers and parents rate aggressive behavior as serious, and as inconsequential that of the withdrawing type. This contrasts sharply with the point of view of clinicians.

¹E. K. Wickman, *Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitudes*. (New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1928).

²Julius Yourman, "Children Identified by Their Teachers as Problems," *The Journal of Educational Sociology*, V (February, 1932), p. 334.

³R. M. Stodgill, "Parental Attitudes and Mental Hygiene Standards," *Mental Hygiene*, XV (October 1931), pp. 813-827.

PERSONNEL OF PROBLEM AND NONPROBLEM GROUPS

From this environment the problem and nonproblem groups were selected. The stage was again narrowed to include but five schools chosen to mirror the eleven in their reliability as a sample of the entire school population. Socio-economically one is slightly superior, two are average, and two below average. Three are, for the most part, of American, the fourth of Polish, and the fifth of Italian-born parentage.

The problem group consists of those reported by the teachers in these five schools while the nonproblem group was sampled alphabetically from the remaining members of the same classes. After allowing for absences and uncontrollable factors, the final number in each group was 264. The profiles of these two groups were then compared.

DIFFERENCES IN DEPARTMENT OF PROBLEM AND
NONPROBLEM GROUPS

The outstanding difference is that which would be expected from the nature of the groups. The measurements in terms of behavior show overwhelming differences in favor of the nonproblem group. From the difference found in deportment grades recorded throughout the school history, it is clear that the problem group has presented a consistent picture of poor conduct in every year of its school progress. The mean average mark of this group is 77.8 in comparison to 82.5 for the nonproblem group, and the critical ratio (28.6) is seven times as large as is necessary to ensure complete reliability of the difference.

Substantiating this is the result of the teachers' rating of the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Schedule A,⁴ the Behavior Problem Record. The average mean of the problem group was found to be 51.1 and that of the nonproblem 17.5. This difference is again of high reliability, being 19.6 times its probable error. Another result, although of questionable importance, pointed in the same direction. The answer

⁴Willard C. Olson, *Problem Tendencies in Children*. (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1930). Melvin E. Haggerty, "The Incidence of Undesirable Behavior in Public-School Children," *Journal of Educational Research*, XII (September 1925), pp. 102-122.

to the psychoneurotic inventory in which the question "Do teachers tell you you are too noisy or talk too much?" provoked a reaction showing more difference (C. R. 7.2) between the problem and nonproblem groups than any of the other twenty-three questions.

Closely allied to this as a measure of school adjustment is Division III (Social Traits) of the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Schedule B as rated by the teachers. This shows more difference between the problem and nonproblem groups than any of the other three divisions. The mean score for the problem group was found to be 30.6 in contrast to that of 21.5 for the nonproblem. This difference of 9.1 is highly reliable, being 25.8 times its probable error.

CONTRASTS IN EMOTIONAL ADEQUACY OF PROBLEM
AND NONPROBLEM GROUPS

Turning from the outward symptoms of maladjustment to the emotional make-up of the individuals displaying these, it is clear, in so far as this investigation was able to determine, that the problem group shows less emotional stability. From the teachers' ratings on Division IV (Emotional Traits) of the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Schedule B, the difference in favor of the nonproblem group appears highly reliable (C. R. 21.4). The mean score of the problem group was 30.3 and that of the nonproblem 20.4.

The other side of the picture, the child's own feelings as measured by the psychoneurotic inventory, show more adjusted answers for the nonproblem group. The mean score for this group is 7.0 and that for the problem 8.4 (C. R. 5.6). The question which showed the second largest critical ratio (6.7) is one quite indicative of the child's feeling of emotional security, "Do you often feel that nobody loves you?" Although it seems risky to offer any prediction from one question, at least this finding is suggestive that any two groups of the type will show difference in the feeling of security measured by this question.

DIFFERENCES IN FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS OF PROBLEM
AND NONPROBLEM GROUPS

Somewhere in between social adequacy and emotional adequacy the results of the human-relation scales,⁵ revised from the White House Conference questionnaire, should be interpreted. The questions, a combination of facts about the child's home life and his relationships with his family, were rated on a home-background score standardized by Burgess and Cavan on the basis of factors which contribute to personality adjustment. The results are definitely in favor of the nonproblem group, showing a difference of 7.1 in mean scores and critical ratio of 5.6. Moreover, one of the questions handled separately, "What does your father do that you do not like?" showed a greater percentage of the problem group complaining of the fathers than the nonproblem. The difference is reliable (C. R. 4.9), although it is impossible to make any claims on the basis of one question. However, six of the questions show differences of highly probable reliability (C. R.'s above 3) so that the indications are that the differences in family relationships, as they are measured by this scale, are in favor of the nonproblem group.

COMPARISON IN TERMS OF INTELLIGENCE AND
SCHOOL ACHIEVEMENT

On the basis of intellectual adequacy, a highly reliable difference was found in favor of the nonproblem group. The mean intelligence quotient on the Kuhlmann-Anderson⁶ and Otis S. A. Form A⁷ group tests for the problem group is 80.7 and for the nonproblem 88.5 with a critical ratio (8.8). Likewise, from the teachers' ratings of Division I (Intellectual Traits) of the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Schedule B the same type of difference was found with a high reliability and predictive value (C. R. 13.8).

Substantiating these findings are the school records. The mean for the average school grades of the problem group

⁵Human Relations Scales, edited by E. W. Burgess and R. S. Cavan, No. 1, "Things I Like to Do." (Chicago: University of Chicago Press).

⁶Kuhlmann-Anderson Intelligence Tests. (Minneapolis: Educational Test Bureau).

⁷S. A. Otis Intelligence Tests. (Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.: World Book Company).

was found to be 71.9 in comparison to 73.5 for the non-problem group. The number of averages upon which this is based is 1,125 for the problem and 1,164 for the non-problem, the critical ratio being 14.0.

LIKENESSES IN SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS

In sharp contrast to these differences of high reliability found between the problem and nonproblem groups in fields of social behavior, emotional adequacy, intelligence, and school success is the similarity they show in socio-economic status measured by the Sims Scale.^a The difference between the mean scores of the two groups, although in favor of the nonproblem group, is but .05 and the chances only 53 out of 100 that it is a true difference. This is the smallest difference found in any of the traits which make up the profile of the two groups.

DIFFERENCES IN CHRONOLOGICAL AGE

These, for the most part contrasting traits of the profiles of the problem and nonproblem groups, seem to have some connection with the position the group holds in the school environment. The findings show that the problem group is over age for the grade to such an extent that the difference between the percentage over age of that group and the non-problem group is 9.5 times its probable error. Moreover, the difference between the percentage of the two groups underage is highly reliable in favor of the nonproblem group (C. R. 6.5). The dissimilarity in chronological age is also shown in the difference between the means of the two groups. That of the problem group is 12.0 years and of the nonproblem 11.3, showing a difference of 7.8 months (C. R. 5.1). Thus, in the face of this evidence, it is possible to predict that any other groups of the type will show differences in age-grade placement in favor of the nonproblem children.

^aVerner M. Sims, *The Measurements of Economic Status*. (Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Company, 1928).

EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS DERIVED FROM FINDINGS

The educational implications derived from these findings are many, although they do not differ widely from those of other studies. It would seem that the 6.9 per cent of the school enrollment considered by the teachers to have problem tendencies constitutes a challenge to education which is not being met. This deviating group is recognized as unable to fit into the school situation as it is at present. Many in it have repeated grades time and time again. A great number show themselves, at least on the basis of group intelligence tests, as incapable of working on a par with their fellows. Many of them, the teachers state, should be examined for special classes.

As the situation now stands in the Jersey City schools, there are special classes for but a small fraction of those who are in need of them. The teachers complain that after reporting a child as backward, the only result is to have the child diagnosed as retarded and put on the waiting list for a special class, where the matter ends. This would seem in keeping with the statistical facts which are that only 245 subnormal children are being given the advantage of the Special II classes, and only 176 of the Special V for retarded. These 421 out of a total elementary-school enrollment of 40,366 are but a small percentage of those who need this specialized work.

Often the teachers stated on the questionnaires that the child should be graduated as soon as possible so that he may learn a trade. It seems incredible, in the face of these facts, that there is no more adequate attempt so to train these students in school. Work in which they could be successful might go a long way towards solving their difficulties. At present, there are but a few hundred enrolled in vocational classes.

The peak of all the problems appears in the fifth and sixth grades. This would seem to indicate that many mal-adjusted pupils are kept in the sixth grade because of mental inability to progress further and the compulsory attendance law which makes discharge impossible. Thus, the only

outlet for these pupils is to disturb the class routine, thus becoming behavior problems.

Not all of the difficulties would be of such easy solution. Definite adjustment work seems indicated by many of the problems. Some of the teachers state that health examinations are needed, and often the home conditions pictured are badly in need of adjustment. In some cases, the child's problem seems to require some type of psychological or psychiatric aid. Only a fraction of the teachers reported the use of any child-guidance agency, in spite of the fact that a definite program has been set up during the past two years.

The department within the school at present offering help is that connected with the Special Service Department. This is organized under a director who is one of the assistant superintendents. In it are correlated all the agencies dealing with children's problems, including truancy, academic failure, personality defect, and poor home conditions. The director and his staff take all the cases under advisement. The psychiatric social worker, the six visiting teachers, psychiatrist, psychologist, attendance officers, and special police carry out the work of adjustment. The special police have an unusual function in the Jersey City school system. They have jurisdiction over all juvenile offenders so that they are guarded from publicity and regular court procedure.

To this Special Service Department cases are referred by the police, the courts, parents, and schools. The statistics show that, out of the entire Jersey City school enrollment of 51,212, only 297 (.15 per cent of enrollment) cases were handled by this agency in the year 1931-1932. This is but a fraction of the problem cases, which number 6.9 per cent of the enrollment as shown by the teachers' reports for this survey.

The department is expanding, however, and plans are being formulated to deal with every type of maladjustment. The cases being handled this year include 71 of the serious problem cases reported for the present investigation. When

this number is compared with the 829 problem cases, or even the 361 serious behavior cases reported by teachers of this sample (11,998), which represents but a third of the elementary enrollment (40,366), it seems quite clear that an adequate approach to the problem is but in the initial stages.

If this program now being initiated could be provided on a larger scale than at present, a great deal of future difficulty might be avoided. Since, however, all innovations develop slowly, great changes cannot be expected from this source immediately. Neither can the suggestions made by this and other investigators for changing the set-up of the schools be expected in the near future.

One solution more nearly within the reach of present probability would be the creation of a different attitude on the part of the teachers. Two very practical steps towards this goal have recently been launched in Jersey City. The principals and teachers involved in the problem cases have been invited to participate in the clinical conferences held by the Special Service Department. Furthermore, the school administration has been encouraging the teachers to take special courses along the lines of child development, some of which have been given in the school buildings. If the teachers could all see the child as a totality with problems which might be solved, instead of as a disturbing element which should be made to conform to a preconceived adult pattern, much might be accomplished. With overcrowded classes this, of course, is impossible. It is probably talking in terms of Utopias to hope for these changes, but, at least, they are goals towards which many are working.

MEASURED DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PROBLEM AND NONPROBLEM CHILDREN IN A PUBLIC- SCHOOL SYSTEM

MILDRED L. FISHER

South Orange-Maplewood School District

Diogenes, with his lantern, searched no more diligently for an honest man than educators are now searching for an understanding of the group characteristics of behavior-problem school children. Sheer scientific interest in discovering experimentally the differences between problem and nonproblem children explains only partially the zeal with which school people are pursuing such investigations. The real driving purpose behind this type of educational research lies in the eagerness of practical school people to reevaluate continuously school procedures in terms of child guidance—in terms of the contribution that the school can make to the wholesome personality growth of school children. One such purposeful experimental investigation of the differences between problem children and nonproblem children in a public-school system is summarized very briefly in the following paragraphs.

DETERMINATION OF PROBLEM AND NONPROBLEM GROUPS

All teachers in a school system of 6,737 pupils were asked to write down the names of all of their pupils whom they considered behavior problems, and to underline the ones they considered the most serious problems. All teachers were also asked to name their best adjusted pupils. No definitions of the terms "behavior problem" or "best adjusted" were given. All pupils in the school system not named as behavior problems were considered to be nonproblem children. This nonproblem group was then subjected to a random sampling, in order to make up a nonproblem group equal in numbers to the problem group, as a basis for experimental investigation.

SCOPE AND TYPE OF MEASUREMENT

The mental, physical, social, and emotional phases of personality were investigated and compared for both the problem and the nonproblem groups. The history of the cumulative school record was studied and compared for the two groups in respect to achievement-test rankings, participation in extracurricular activities, special interests, ordinal position in the family, size of the family, and number of other school systems attended.

Standardized group tests or rating scales were used so far as possible. Group-intelligence tests and the mental trait division of the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Behavior Rating Schedules were used to compare the intellectual capacities of the problem and the nonproblem groups. The Rogers Physical Capacity Tests and the physical-trait division of the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Rating Schedules were used to compare the physical fitness of the two groups. The Burgess-Cavan Tests of Home Background, the Sims Socio-Economic Tests, and the social-trait division of the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Schedules were utilized in an investigation of the social background. The Thurstone Psycho-Neurotic Inventory and the emotional-trait division of the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Behavior Rating Scale were used to compare the emotional characteristics of the two groups.

The cumulative school-record material, consisting largely of yearly teacher ratings, was tabulated as additional information in the various fields of investigation mentioned in the two preceding paragraphs. The most interesting and unusual portion of the cumulative record material was a rating sheet of social and emotional tendencies filed in the kindergarten years by kindergarten teachers for the pupils in the experimental groups of grades kindergarten, I, II, and III.

GENERAL DIFFERENCES FOUND

Judged on the basis of raw arithmetical mean scores, standardized tests showed that the nonproblem group was consistently favored over the problem group in terms of desirable intellectual traits, in desirable social traits and

background, in emotional adjustment, in socio-economic status, and in physical fitness and vigor. The best-adjusted group almost always had the highest favorable scores in all these fields of comparison, the nonproblem group had the second highest favorable scores, the problem group had the third highest favorable scores, and the most serious problem group had the lowest scores. The consistency of this general trend in the relative positions of the mean scores for all four experimental groups was apparent both when the scores were distributed by separate grades, and also when the scores were distributed by schools.

The tabulated cumulative record material supported the evidence of standardized-test results whenever the fields of investigation were the same. In certain matters of comparison not touched upon by the standardized tests, the cumulative record material showed some other interesting differences between the problem and the nonproblem groups. The best adjusted group had the highest percentage of children who had not attended any other school system, and the most serious problem group had the lowest percentage. Of those children who had attended only one other school system, the best adjusted group had the lowest percentage, and the most serious problem group had the highest percentage. Of those children who had attended *more* than two other school systems, however, both the best adjusted and the most serious problem groups had markedly higher percentages than the total problem group and the total nonproblem group. In fact, the best adjusted group actually had a higher percentage than the most serious problem group of children who had attended two or more other school systems.

The percentages of only children showed interesting differences between the problem and nonproblem groups. On the elementary-school level, the four experimental groups ranked in the following order when arranged in descending order from highest to lowest percentages of only children: most serious problem group; total problem group; total nonproblem group; best adjusted group. On

the secondary-school level, however, these differences entirely disappeared.

In respect to the average number and diversity of type of school extracurricular activities participated in by the experimental groups, the four groups ranked in the following order, from highest to lowest: best adjusted group; total nonproblem group; total problem group; most serious problem group. The only type of activity in which the problem group children outnumbered the nonproblem group children was sports.

In general, arithmetical differences in mean scores between problem and nonproblem groups tended consistently to favor the nonproblem groups with the desirable qualities or experiences in all fields.

HIGHEST COMPARATIVE RELIABILITY OF THE DIFFERENCES FOUND IN THE SOCIAL AND EMOTIONAL FIELDS

The arithmetical differences mentioned in the preceding topic appeared to have unequal significance when statistically treated and compared in terms of the reliability of the differences.

The differences between the problem and nonproblem group mean scores, on the various standardized tests used, showed much variation in reliability. The Sims Socio-Economic Status scores, and the Burgess-Cavan Home-Background scores, showed unreliable differences since the critical ratios were lower than four. The median I.Q.'s for the problem and nonproblem groups derived from the group-intelligence tests showed unreliable differences in all grades except kindergarten and seventh grade. For the entire problem and nonproblem groups compared for the whole school system, the critical ratio for the differences between the median I.Q.'s of the two groups was only 4.1. On the Rogers Tests of Physical Capacity Tests, the differences between the medians of the problem and nonproblem groups were entirely unreliable.

On the Thurstone Psycho-Neurotic Inventory and the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Behavior Rating Scale, however, the differences between the mean scores of the problem and nonproblem groups showed reliability ratios of 6 for the

Thurstone and 14 for the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman. When the scores of the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Scale were redistributed in terms of separate divisions (intellectual, physical, social, and emotional) the ratios of reliability for the intellectual and physical-trait divisions were approximately 10, whereas the critical ratios for the social and emotional differences averaged 21.

The tabulated cumulative-record material, compared for the problem and nonproblem groups in terms of percentages, showed the same type of unequal reliability. Percentage differences were all unreliable in respect to the number of only children in the group, and the size of family, the number of other school systems attended, the number of physical defects, the number of children rated below average in health, and the number of children rated immature in physical development. Only on the percentage differences of ratings on the kindergarten history in respect to emotional tendencies and social-group abilities were the reliability ratios higher than 4—in fact, as high as 24 in some emotional differences. Again the outstanding reliable differences, on the cumulative record school history, just as on the standardized group tests or rating scales, were in the social and emotional fields.

DETAILED EXAMINATION OF THE SOCIAL DIFFERENCES

Social-trait differences in terms of problem tendencies

Division III of the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Behavior Rating Scale provides for teacher ratings of ten different social traits in terms of their problem tendency score: *i.e.*, the higher the score of an individual child on any one item, the greater is the tendency of that trait to contribute to the development of problem behavior. Teacher ratings of the social traits of all children in the four experimental groups—176 children in the most serious problem group, 360 in total problem group, 360 in total nonproblem group, and 159 children in the best adjusted group—were made for grades kindergarten, I, III, V, VI, IX, and XII of an entire school system. The mean scores on the ten individual social-trait items, and for the total social-trait division, were worked out according to separate grades, according

to separate schools, and according to the total results for the entire school system.

The ten social-trait items comprising the social-trait division of the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Behavior Rating Scale were as follows: (1) Is he quiet or talkative? (2) Is his behavior (honesty, morals, etc.) generally acceptable to ordinary social standards? (3) What are his social habits (in terms of social withdrawal, or social participation)? (4) Is he shy or bold in social relationships? (5) Is his personality attractive? (6) How does he accept authority? (7) How flexible is he? (8) Is he rude or courteous? (9) Does he give in to others or does he assert himself? (10) What tendency has he to criticize others?

Under each of the listed traits appears a five-point scale, with an objective statement of the particular behavior manifestation which each one of the five points represents.

On every single one of the ten social traits, in every single grade, and in every single school, the mean scores of the four experimental groups ranked in the same order in terms of the behavior-problem tendencies of their particular social-trait patterns. The most serious problem group had the highest problem tendency mean score; the total problem group, the second highest; the total nonproblem group, the third highest; and the best adjusted group, the lowest problem-tendency score.

Grade by grade, from the kindergarten on through the twelfth, there appeared a consistent tendency for the greatest difference in the mean scores on any one item between the problem and nonproblem groups to be in the item of acceptance of authority and in the item of general acceptability of behavior to ordinary social standards.

Present social-trait differences as revealed in behavior-problem record

Schedule A of the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Behavior Rating Schedule consists of a teacher rating of the frequency of occurrence of fifteen specific behavior problems, listed as: (1) disinterest in schoolwork, (2) cheating, (3) unnecessary tardiness, (4) lying, (5) defiance to discipline, (6) marked overactivity, (7) unpopularity with children, (8) temper outbursts, (9) bullying, (10) speech difficulties,

(11) imaginative lying, (12) sex offenses, (13) stealing, (14) truancy, (15) obscene notes, talk, or pictures.

Children of all four experimental groups in grades kindergarten, I, III, V, VI, IX, and XII were rated by their teachers on these fifteen items. On every single item, in every grade, in every school, and in the totals for the entire school system, the mean scores showed most frequent occurrence of each behavior problem in the most serious problem group; next most frequent occurrence in the total problem group; third most frequent occurrence in the total nonproblem group; and the least frequent occurrence in the best adjusted group.

The greatest difference between the mean scores of the problem and nonproblem groups was in the item listed as "unpopularity with children." On the basis of separate grades, the results showed this item as representing the greatest grade difference between the problem and nonproblem groups for every grade except the twelfth.

Social-trait differences in terms of kindergarten history

The cumulative school records of pupils comprising all four experimental groups in grades kindergarten, I, II, and III, contained a rating sheet of certain special abilities as the kindergarten teachers had estimated them. It must be kept in mind that the children had been named as problems, or as best adjusted, by their present grade teachers, so the kindergarten record had been made out by different teachers from one to four years previous to this investigation.

The following so-called special abilities were rated for each child as average, below average, or above average in kindergarten: conversational ability; rhythmic ability; ability to sing songs; ability to tell stories; ability to get along with the group; care of group and personal possessions; ability to plan and execute a project; handwork ability. The differences between the percentage of below average ratings of the most serious problem group, and the percentage of below average ratings of the best adjusted group were enough in favor of the best adjusted group to yield statistically reliable ratios on practically every item.

However, the differences between the total problem and nonproblem group percentages of below average ratings yielded two out of three most statistically reliable differences (critical ratios of 9 and 12) in the predominantly social traits: ability to get along with the group, care of group and personal possessions.

When the four experimental group ratings were distributed separately by grades (kindergarten, I, III) to discover the tendency of kindergarten ratings to persist for one to four years, the results were entirely consistent by grade with the results for all three grades mentioned in the preceding paragraph. Regardless of the number of years ago that the kindergarten rating was made, the four experimental groups ranked in the same order on the two predominantly social abilities in regard to the percentage of below average ratings: most serious problem group; total problem group; total nonproblem group; best adjusted group. Not only was this true for the raw arithmetical differences, but every single difference yielded critical ratios well above 4, and thus demonstrated their reliability.

In ability to get along in kindergarten with the group, and in the care of group and personal possessions in kindergarten, the reliable advantage of the nonproblem group over the problem group was consistently apparent grade by grade. This was true regardless of how long ago the kindergarten record was made, and regardless of the fact that the problem and nonproblem groups were *named* by present teachers, but were *rated* by previous kindergarten teachers.

DETAILED EXAMINATION OF THE EMOTIONAL DIFFERENCES

Emotional differences in terms of teacher ratings

Division IV of the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Behavior Rating Schedule provides for teacher ratings of eleven different emotional traits in terms of their "problem-tendency" score; *i.e.*, the higher the score of an individual child on any one item, the greater is the tendency of that trait to contribute to the development of problem behavior. Teacher ratings of the emotional traits of all children in the four experimental groups—176 children in the most

Differences in Problem and Nonproblem Children 361

serious problem group, 360 children in the total problem group, 360 children in the total nonproblem group, and 159 children in the best adjusted group—were made for grades kindergarten, I, III, V, VI, IX, and XII of the entire school system. The mean scores on the eleven different emotional-trait items and on the total emotional-trait division were worked out according to separate grades, according to separate schools, and according to the total results for the entire school system.

The eleven emotional-trait items comprising the emotional trait division are as follows: (1) Is he even tempered or moody? (2) Is he easily discouraged or is he persistent? (3) Is he generally depressed or cheerful? (4) Is he sympathetic? (5) How does he react to frustrations or to unpleasant situations? (6) Does he worry or is he easy-going? (7) How does he react to examination or to discussion of himself or his problems? (8) Is he suspicious or trustful? (9) Is he emotionally calm or excitable? (10) Is he negativistic or suggestible? (11) Does he act impulsively or cautiously? Under each of the listed traits appears a five-point scale, with an objective statement of the particular behavior manifestation which each one of the five points represents.

On every single one of the eleven emotional traits, in every single grade and in every single school, the mean scores of the four experimental groups ranked in the same order in terms of the behavior-problem tendencies of their particular emotional-trait pattern. The most serious problem group had the highest problem-tendency score; the total problem group had the second highest; the total nonproblem group had the third highest and the best adjusted had the lowest problem-tendency score.

Grade by grade, from the kindergarten on through the twelfth, there appeared a consistent tendency for the greatest differences in the mean scores on any single items between the problem and nonproblem groups to be in the items rating a child's reaction to frustrations or unpleasant situations, and a child's tendency to act impulsively or

cautiously, and a child's tendency to be negativistic or suggestible.

✓ *Emotional differences in terms of children's own opinions*

The abbreviated Thurstone Psycho-Neurotic Inventory consists of twenty-four questions to be answered by the children themselves, which are scored in terms of their tendency towards emotional adjustment, or emotional maladjustment.¹ Although there was a consistent tendency of the total elementary-school nonproblem group to obtain higher adjustment mean scores on each individual question than the total elementary-school problem group did, the differences were reliable statistically only in the following questions, listed in order of their reliability:

- Do people say you are disobedient?
- Do people find fault with you much?
- Do teachers tell you you are noisy or talk too much?
- Did you ever have a teacher you couldn't get along with?
- Do you ever take other people's things without their permission?
- Have you always liked the nicknames you have been given?
- Do you ever feel that some one is trying to do you harm,

On the secondary-school level, however, only one question yielded reliable differences between the problem and nonproblem groups. The problem group received a reliably higher percentage of affirmative (unadjusted) answers than the nonproblem group on the question: Did you ever want to run away from home? The affirmative answers of the problem group to this question suggested the possibility of a crystallized aggressive reaction to long-standing feelings of the type expressed by the elementary-school children in the preceding paragraph.

Emotional-trait differences in terms of kindergarten history

The cumulative school records of pupils comprising all four experimental groups in grades kindergarten, I, II, and III contained a rating sheet of emotional tendencies as the kindergarten teacher had rated them in the kindergarten

¹Abbreviated by E. W. Burgess, and incorporated in Human Relations Scales, No. 1, by E. W. Burgess and Ruth Shonle Cavan (University of Chicago Press). Reliability of abbreviated form.

year. It must be remembered that the children were named as problems or as best adjusted by their present grade teachers, but the kindergarten record had been made out by different teachers from one to four years previous to this investigation.

Eleven so-called "emotional tendencies" were checked for each kindergarten child *only if the tendency was marked*. The list of items included dependability, quarrelsomeness, thoughtfulness, dreaminess, generosity, stubbornness, sensitiveness, "tantrums," affectionateness, excitability, and colorlessness. The number of checked items was compared for the problem and nonproblem groups, and for the most serious problem group and the best adjusted group. In every case, the nonproblem group received more of the favorable tendency checks and fewer of the unfavorable tendency checks than the problem group. The same trend, accentuated, appeared in the comparison of the best adjusted group with the most serious problem group. The best adjusted and nonproblem groups were markedly more dependable, more thoughtful, more generous, more sensitive, and more affectionate, less quarrelsome, less dreamy, less stubborn, less "tantrummy," less excitable, and less colorless than the problem group. Reliability ratios for the differences in percentage of checks were high, reaching a peak of 24.4 in the differences between the most serious problem group and the best adjusted group in the matter of dependability.

When the rating for the four experimental groups was distributed by grade (kindergarten, I, III) to discover the persistence of the differences noted in the preceding paragraph, the results were consistent without exception. Regardless of the number of years ago the kindergarten ratings had been made, the groups named as problems by their present grade teachers had been rated by their kindergarten teachers as less dependable, less thoughtful, less generous, less sensitive, less affectionate, more quarrelsome, more dreamy, more stubborn, more given to tantrums, more excitable, more colorless than the nonproblem children. So great were the differences in dependability, thoughtful-

ness, quarrelsomeness, stubbornness, and excitability between the total problem and nonproblem groups, and between the most serious problem group and the best adjusted group, that statistical treatment indicated reliability of the differences in each separate grade.

INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS

Although any generalization from a limited investigation is unsound, it is probably not too rash to expect to find similar differences between problem and nonproblem groups similarly selected from a similar school population. With this expectation in view, educators may feel a challenge in the findings of the present study.

That the most reliable group differences between problem and nonproblem children lie in the social and emotional fields is not simply a psychiatrist's hypothesis on the basis of experience with isolated individual cases. It is a finding, statistically reliable, based on this nontechnical investigation by school persons in a public-school system. That the social and emotional traits apparent at kindergarten age tend to persist is not simply a psychiatrist's theory, but a demonstrated finding of this study, attested to unwittingly by the opinions of teachers unaware of the issue involved, unaware of each other's opinions, and years apart in point of time.

Surely educators, who accept as their primary objective what laymen call "character education" or what mental hygienists term education in "personality and social adjustment," will wish to reappraise the social and emotional training absorbed by children from the administration, supervision, personnel, and classroom experiences of the public school. Public-school experiences and training can be consciously organized to provide the best possible "growing conditions" for the development of the mental, physical, social, and emotional life of all children. Then, within this generally favorable environment, each individual child may be helped to make the most of himself through the activities of a child-guidance program sensitive to the challenge of research findings.

A SURVEY OF PREDELINQUENT SCHOOL CHILDREN OF TEN MIDWESTERN CITIES

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The object of this study was to find the percentage, distribution, and behavior characteristics of problem children in the school systems of cities of varying size. For some time the feeling has been growing that we should utilize to an ever increasing extent the facilities which the public schools offer for discovering and treating predelinquents. This has resulted from convincing evidence that most of our efforts towards reformation of delinquents and criminals have proved futile. We are continually reminded that our hope of solving the crime problem must lie in preventing the development of social behavior patterns and criminal attitudes. Long experience in dealing with juvenile offenders has convinced the writer of the futility of most of our efforts after the child has been allowed to become such a serious problem as to need the attention of legal authorities. The child who shows symptoms of becoming delinquent must be discovered at the earliest possible moment. (Inasmuch as the sociological, psychological, and medical concomitants of delinquency and crime are now well known, it would seem possible to use some method of discovering predelinquent children before their problems become too acute.)

Since all children attend school, at least in the early grades, school would seem to be the logical place to discover the predelinquent while his delinquent tendencies are still in the incipient stages of development. Previous studies have convinced the writer that this is possible. Later, comparisons with juvenile-court statistics, together with other evidence, will be given in confirmation of this belief.

A total of 55,995 children were attending the schools surveyed in the ten cities.¹ Of this number, 1,343 were

¹Copies of the schedule used in this study may be secured from the Big Brothers and Big Sisters Federation, Inc., New York.

listed as problems. This shows the percentage of problem children to be 2.4. It is interesting to note that, for cities from 15,000 to 100,000 population, there is apparently little relationship between the size of the city and percentage of problem children reported. For example, the second largest city is third from the lowest in percentage of predelinquents reported in its schools. The relationship as shown by rank order correlation is .333 with a probable error of plus or minus .197. This means that the correlation is almost negligible. The cities vary in the percentage of problem children from 1.2 to 5.3 of those attending school.

TABLE I

<i>Cities</i>	<i>Number Children Attending Schools Surveyed</i>	<i>Number Problem Children</i>	<i>Percent- age</i>	<i>Number Boys</i>	<i>Number Girls</i>	<i>Per Cent Boys</i>	<i>Per Cent Girls</i>
Total ...	55,995	1,343	2.4	1,075	268	80.2	19.8
Bloomington	2,770	38	1.4	34	4	89.5	10.5
Decatur ..	6,802	138	2.0	119	19	86.2	13.8
Elgin	4,898	106	2.2	87	19	82.1	17.9
Jacksonville	350	9	2.6	5	4	55.6	44.4
Peoria	9,849	308	3.1	249	59	80.8	19.2
Rock Island	3,340	98	2.8	81	17	82.6	17.4
South Bend	11,646	174	1.5	131	43	75.3	24.7
Terre Haute	5,784	306	5.3	238	68	77.8	22.2
Vincennes .	1,640	19	1.2	10	9	52.6	47.4
Racine	8,826	147	1.7	121	26	82.3	17.7

In Table I will be found the number and percentage of problem children reported by cities and by sex, boys and girls. From this it can be seen that 80.2 per cent of the problem children are boys and 19.8 per cent are girls. This means that four boys are listed as problems for each girl so listed. Juvenile-court statistics for the United States give approximately 83 per cent boys and 17 per cent girls. This is an interesting confirmation of the theory that these are the children who will later find their way into the juvenile courts.

✓ It is a well-known fact that the peak of truancy comes at thirteen years of age. A previous survey has shown that age thirteen shows the greatest number of predelinquent boys. This study again shows that the thirteen-year-age

group has the highest percentage of predelinquents to be found in the public schools. But ages fourteen, fifteen, eleven, and twelve give almost as high a percentage. Ages ten, eleven, twelve, thirteen, fourteen, and fifteen account for 67.3 per cent of the predelinquents.

Table II gives the per cent of problem children reported for each age group. From this it can be seen that the cities vary considerably in the percentage reported for different age groups. Jacksonville, for example, lists 55 per cent as being fifteen years of age. This is due to the fact that only junior-high-school pupils are reported in this city.

TABLE II
PERCENTAGE OF PROBLEM CHILDREN IN EACH AGE GROUP

A survey of problem children in (1) Bloomington, (2) Decatur, (3) Elgin, (4) Jacksonville (5) Peoria, (6) Rock Island, Illinois; (7) South Bend, (8) Terre Haute, (9) Vincennes, Indiana; and (10) Racine, Wisconsin.

Cities	Total	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Age	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
5.....	0.7	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.6
6.....	1.5	2.8	.0	1.9	.0	1.4	.0	1.1	3.0	.0	1.3
7.....	3.9	8.3	10.4	1.9	.0	3.2	.0	2.9	5.4	.0	1.3
8.....	6.3	8.3	8.0	2.8	.0	6.2	1.0	5.8	9.8	.0	6.1
9.....	8.5	11.1	12.8	2.8	.0	12.0	3.1	4.0	9.5	5.2	9.5
10.....	9.9	8.3	8.0	5.7	.0	14.6	8.3	5.2	11.9	.0	11.5
11.....	10.6	8.3	10.4	6.8	.0	11.3	3.1	5.2	15.6	21.0	13.6
12.....	10.6	.0	10.4	9.5	.0	12.7	6.2	11.0	11.9	31.6	8.1
13.....	12.5	16.6	15.2	2.8	.0	12.4	13.5	14.6	15.0	5.2	10.8
14.....	12.4	16.6	11.2	11.4	.0	13.8	19.8	15.7	8.1	10.5	11.5
15.....	11.3	16.6	6.4	17.2	55.6	6.9	25.0	14.0	6.1	21.0	13.6
16.....	7.0	2.8	6.4	15.2	33.3	3.6	13.5	14.6	2.3	.0	5.4
17.....	2.8	.0	.8	8.4	.0	1.0	5.2	5.2	.6	5.2	4.0
18.....	1.0	.0	.0	9.5	11.1	.3	1.0	.0	.0	.0	1.3
19.....	.3	.0	.0	3.8	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.6

The fifth grade upholds its reputation as being a critical point in the school system by leading all the other grades in the percentage of problem children it contains. Over one sixth, 16.2 per cent, of all the problem children are found in this grade. The third grade follows next with 13.9 per cent. In close sequence comes the sixth grade with 12.6 per cent, the fourth grade with 12.4 per cent, the second grade with 11.2 per cent. A study in the same cities made by the writer a year previously yielded strikingly similar results in this respect. A rank order correlation between the two studies gives .90 with a P. E. of plus or minus .04.

Table III gives the percentage distribution by grades for each of the cities.

TABLE III

PER CENT OF PROBLEM CHILDREN IN EACH GRADE

A survey of problem children in (1) Bloomington, (2) Decatur, (3) Elgin, (4) Jacksonville, (5) Peoria, (6) Rock Island, Illinois; (7) South Bend, (8) Terre Haute, (9) Vincennes, Indiana; and (10) Racine, Wisconsin.

Cities Total	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Grade	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Kindergarten..	.6	.0	.0	3.1	.0	.0	.0	1.5	.0	.8
1.....	10.8	13.9	14.7	4.6	.0	10.6	.0	6.8	19.6	.0
2.....	11.2	11.1	14.7	3.1	.0	14.0	4.3	7.5	10.6	10.5
3.....	13.9	5.5	12.1	4.6	.0	16.3	7.6	7.5	21.6	26.3
4.....	12.4	19.4	15.6	6.2	.0	13.6	7.6	5.4	16.8	15.8
5.....	16.2	13.9	10.4	14.0	.0	16.0	13.1	18.4	15.7	26.3
6.....	12.6	11.1	16.5	10.9	.0	11.6	18.5	23.9	4.7	21.0
7.....	11.0	13.9	8.6	9.3	44.4	11.3	25.0	10.9	7.8	.0
8.....	7.5	11.1	2.6	9.3	55.6	6.0	11.9	13.7	1.1	.0
9.....	2.5	.0	1.7	6.2	.0	.0	10.9	5.4	.0	.0
10.....	.4	.0	2.6	3.1	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0
11.....	.1	.0	.0	3.1	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0
Special.....	.0	.0	.0	21.8	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0

Intelligence quotients were given for 442 of the total of 1,343 children reported as predelinquents. We find that 16.8 per cent are in the group ranging between 40 and 70 in their intelligence quotients and classified as feeble-minded. Another 19.6 per cent have intelligence quotients between 70 and 80 and are classified as borderline defectives. A slightly higher percentage, 23.9 per cent, are classified as dull normal with intelligence quotients between 80 and 90. This peak falls where we have learned to expect delinquent children. As a group they usually average between 80 and 90 in their intelligence quotients. Almost a third, 30.4 per cent, of our predelinquents fall within the normal range from 90 to 110 I.Q., while 8.7 per cent are definitely superior in intelligence as judged by our tests.

Table IV gives this data in concise form for each of the cities as well as the totals.

TABLE IV

PERCENT OF PROBLEM CHILDREN IN EACH I.Q. GROUP

A survey of problem children in (1) Bloomington, (2) Decatur, (3) Elgin, (4) Jacksonville, (5) Peoria, (6) Rock Island, Illinois; (7) South Bend, (8) Terre Haute, (9) Vincennes, Indiana; and (10) Racine, Wisconsin.

Cities Total	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
I.Q.	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
40-49.....	1.8	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	5.1	.0	.0	.0
50-59.....	2.4	.0	.0	2.7	.0	4.8	.0	5.1	3.5	.0
60-69.....	12.6	5.3	.0	10.8	11.1	14.6	16.6	14.5	7.1	53.3
70-79.....	19.6	26.3	.0	12.1	33.3	26.8	25.0	13.6	28.5	33.3
80-89.....	23.9	23.7	.0	22.9	11.1	36.6	19.4	26.4	21.4	6.6
90-99.....	16.9	18.4	.0	10.8	33.3	7.3	13.9	17.0	17.8	6.6
100-109.....	13.5	15.8	.0	24.3	11.1	4.8	13.9	10.2	14.2	.0
110-119.....	6.5	.0	.0	14.8	.0	.0	2.8	6.8	3.5	.0
120-129.....	2.2	10.5	.0	1.3	.0	4.8	8.3	.8	3.5	.0

Only 3 per cent of these predelinquents fail to be noted as showing one or more of the characteristics listed on the

schedule under "Social Maladjustment." Next in order of number comes the heading, "Miscellaneous," which includes various forms of school maladjustment. Here we find 83 per cent of the predelinquents listed. "Defective Home Conditions" are shown to exist in 77 per cent of these predelinquents. This means that the teachers are aware of the existence of these conditions in this number of cases. Almost two thirds, 61 per cent, are "Irregular in Attendance" at school and 46 per cent have "Physical Abnormalities" of varying degrees of seriousness.

Some of the symptoms most frequently listed under "Social Maladjustment" are, in decreasing order of number, "constantly annoys children near by," "misconduct in school," "general disobedience and disrespect for authority, rules, etc.," "quarrels with other children," "indifferent to rights and opinions of others," "lacks good sportmanship," "lies," "inability to appreciate consequences," "easily led," "uncleanliness of body and clothes," "tries to dominate other children," "associates with bad companions," "abnormal desire for attention."

Under "Miscellaneous" the most frequently mentioned items are "lack of sustained attention," "over age for grade," "subject matter too hard for mental level," "does well in some subjects, poorly in others," "dislike for type of schoolwork offered," in the order named. The items listed most frequently under "Defective Home Conditions" are "inadequate parental supervision," "poverty," "ignorance of parents," "indifference of parents," and "low moral standards exist in the home." The reasons for "Irregular Attendance" are "lack of parental interest in school," "lack of interest on part of pupil," "often absent without parents' knowledge or consent," and "parents keep child out for trivial reasons." "Undernourishment" heads the list of items under "Physical Abnormalities." This is followed by "defective teeth," "unduly awkward" "defective vision," and "defective speech," in the order named.

- Mention has already been made of the fact that approximately four times as many boys as girls are listed as pre-

delinquents. It was also pointed out that this proportion is almost identical with that found in the juvenile courts of the country. Comparing the boys and girls relative to the frequency with which the separate items in our questionnaire are checked, there are certain characteristics in which they differ. Only 22 per cent of the predelinquent girls are reported for "misconduct in school" as contrasted with 46 per cent of the predelinquent boys. Boys are much more likely to manifest "general disobedience and disrespect for authority, rules, etc.," than are girls. Here the percentage is 23 for the girls and 45 for the boys, more than one third. Boys are likely to "annoy other children." Almost one half, 48 per cent, of the boys are reported on this item and only 31 per cent of the girls. On the other hand, predelinquent girls are more likely to show timidity and inferiority feelings. This item is mentioned for 31 per cent of the predelinquent girls and 14 per cent of the predelinquent boys. Predelinquent girls show more abnormal interest in sex. The percentage is three times as high for girls as for boys. The percentage of predelinquent girls who are overdeveloped physically for their age is five times as great as for predelinquent boys.

THE TRANSITION FROM HOME TO SCHOOL

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Until recent years adults have thought that the child's social and emotional life really began when he entered school. The general idea was that he started school unformed—a blank wax disk upon which, with the help of the teachers, life was to be developed and recorded. We now believe that the child does not enter school a social and emotional blank, but that he already bears the imprint of five important years of association with his family, his playmates, and his neighborhood. These early contacts form the underlying attitudes and reactions upon which the pattern of his social and emotional life are based. The teacher must realize that these early impressions, often only faintly outlined, have been recorded, and that her success as a teacher and a guide will depend largely upon her understanding and interpretations of the past record.

That these initial impressions are important has been borne out by psychologists and psychiatrists in their work with adults who thought the problems of their childhood had been completely obliterated. In the process of their work, they have discovered that many adult problems are based upon the conceptions of early childhood. This has motivated further study of children's attitudes towards their home, their playmates, and their school experiences. Parents are beginning to recognize the fact that even a small child of preschool age has ideas and opinions of how things should be in his life. These opinions are important, faulty though they may be, because they are the key to the child's inner life and his outlook upon the world.

This being true, we should consider more critically the child's introduction to the larger world through his entrance into school. It is only recently that the teacher of the kindergarten and primary grades has been looked upon as an important person in the school system, except as she

enters into the process of teaching the child to read and to become acclimated to school procedure. When mental-hygiene work was inaugurated in the school, many teachers of the primary grades said, "It is all very interesting, but you know we do not have problem children in the first and second grades; ours are too small." It is generally recognized now, however, that many of the problems of the intermediate grades were already present in the first grade. When the child is younger he lacks the courage to define his objections and is more easily controlled. The problem is there, but the child has not found himself sufficiently to be able to make his difficulties felt.

It will not be surprising if as time goes on the teacher of the lower grades will be looked up to as having the most strategic position of any teachers in the school. There was a time when the teachers who had had the most training and "were able to get along better with children" were placed in the higher grades, and the weaker teacher was relegated to the young child because "he did not matter so much." The physician of olden time was looked upon as a "curer," he was only called in when home remedies failed. Now we realize that the old axiom, "An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure," is sounder policy. This change in point of view is making itself felt through mental hygiene in the realm of education. We are increasingly realizing that our greatest effort and teaching talent is wisely invested in the early school years.

It is the purpose of this paper to discuss some of the underlying factors that lead to maladjustment in the transition from home to school. Studies in psychology, mental hygiene, and sociology have stressed the importance of a more scientific and consistent emphasis upon the training and guidance of teachers in the lower grades. If this interest in the young child is left to the educational authorities outside the school, education will never realize its ultimate goal; for it is the classroom teacher, who has daily contact with the child, upon whom rests the success or failure of these adjustments.

The first experiences of the child are in the primary

groups which consist of the family, the playgroup, and the gang. The family is without question the most salient factor of the three. It is within this group that the child conceives his initial attitudes towards the playgroup and the gang, becomes conditioned in his reactions towards the church and school, and formulates opinions concerning the larger community. His contacts outside the home in later years change these first attitudes to some extent, but they will never entirely obliterate them. Therefore, the thoughts, ideas, and opinions of the small child, however hazy they may be, assume greater importance than is usually attributed to them by adults. If the school proposes to fulfill its mission in preparing the child for life in our civilization, these early forces must be recognized, and a school program will have to be formulated in which and through which the home can be studied and interpreted. Some of our more progressive schools have already initiated such programs.

The school experience is the first major experience of the child in which he is "on his own." This initiation into the world—his world—is not looked upon seriously by many parents and teachers. In fact, the full significance as to what this first attempt in adjustment means to the child is not grasped by many school administrators. A recent survey of first-grade failures shows that an average of seventeen per cent of children fail to attain their first promotion. Whether this failure comes at the end of the first term or year depends upon the school's policy of promotions. In either case it occurs early in the school life of the child. This means that almost one fifth of all the children entering first grade fail in their first independent attempt to compete with their fellows. These are statistics of academic failure alone. No attempt has been made to record those children who are "promoted" but fail in their social and emotional adjustments. Little attempt has been made to discover what proportion of these academic failures reflects social and emotional failures. However, we find when these academic failures are studied individually that

many of them are not the result of retarded mentality, but are due to some other maladjustment.

The problem of the child's first adjustment to school is somewhat different in the crowded city than it is in the rural and smaller suburban community. If the child goes to school with his playmates, if the school registration is small, and the teachers are a part of the community, then the child does not feel that he is entering an entirely new world of strangers. In the large city, however, the school world is not only new but strange. We will first consider the average public school of a large city.

The child who has been allowed to "run the streets" is undoubtedly less affected by some of the social experience of the school than the child who has been more carefully guarded. But the child who has been allowed his freedom may resent the confinement and quiet of the school and defy the rules and regulations of classroom procedure. He has become accustomed to thrills. Racing ambulances, fire engines, and police patrols are to him far more interesting than the routine work of the school. Assignments are unrelated to his life out of school, and he is confronted with an entirely new set of values. His five or six years of experience in life has taught him how to take care of himself on the streets, to fight for his younger brothers and sisters, to "snitch" food from street markets, to provide fuel for the family, to abide by the code of his street gang. He has come to the school from crowded tenement rooms in which there has been little thought of training in what we term "manners." He has learned that he should "keep from underfoot," look after himself, and come in when it is time to go to bed. Now this child is confronted with such standards as "politeness," clean hands and face, clean clothes, obedience to rules, and concentration on reading.

These standards are not only new and strange, not only run counter to habits about which the child's life is organized—they are as well difficult of realization in his home and neighborhood environment. As a simple illustration let us consider the matter of cleanliness. Social workers soon learn after visiting their clients in crowded city quar-

ters that the realization of their standards of cleanliness is difficult if not absolutely impossible in the average tenement. There must first be the opportunity to be clean. Our American ideals in this respect have been set up on the basis of bathrooms, hot and cold running water, abundance of towels and washcloths, and individual toothbrushes. In many homes these ideals cannot be carried out even if there is a wish to comply. With eight or ten children in the home of three or four rooms, no bathroom, no hot running water, and an absence of linen, the busy mother of the tenements has all she can do to get the children clothed at all; and bathing is a luxury.

The schools should consider cleanliness and sanitation as a vital part of their curriculum, but if the child is humiliated or brought into conflict with the family by the methods used by the school in its endeavor to raise his standards, then the personality of the child may suffer more than his body will be helped by more applications of water. Such suggestions as, "Go home and tell your mother to wash your neck," or "You naughty boy, look at your dirty hands," seldom stimulate the child to be fond of his school or his teacher, especially if they are given in the presence of his classmates.

Particularly is it important to keep in mind, in case of the child of foreign parentage, that the attitudes of his family and community reflect a culture very different from our own, that situations are defined for him after patterns utterly unlike those presented by the school, that he is praised at home for the very things for which he is blamed at school. If the customs of other national and cultural groups were better understood by school and teacher, they would guide him more wisely in his first adjustments to the standards of the larger American community.

These children of the city who have had associations with older boys and girls in gang life have learned a code of behavior which is often in opposition to that of the adult world as represented by the school. The child in the gang begins to look upon any adult as a person who is not to be trusted, who will interfere with the gang's activities, who does not play fair with the child. This same child

accepts the gang code—"Never tell on a member of your gang, consider all members of other gangs as enemies, never tell an adult any of your business." When such a child is admitted into our schools, he should be accepted as a child who has had unfortunate guidance and not as an individual who should be isolated for fear that he will contaminate other children. He will become a citizen in our community, and in the early school years these gang ideals can be best interpreted in terms of the standards of the community. Defying him will at once confirm his already formed opinions of the adult. Understanding him will place him and the teacher in the only position in which he can gain insight into law and order. These children have all the potentialities for successful development. Our schools must begin to accept and salvage the leadership, the alertness, and loyalty that they represent. Our schools have too long welcomed only those children who have been fortunate enough to have been born into families in which the mores of the school are accepted.

On the other hand, the child who has been protected and, according to our standards, well trained is often overwhelmed by the magnitude of the school and the contacts with many children. He learns that the teacher approves of his clean hands and good clothes, but that many of the children whom he admires most are scornful of such unimportant matters. He longs to be on his own, but he is fearful of the rush and complexity of his new freedom. He feels from the first that he is out of step with the "regular fellows." We often find that these carefully protected children are unable to wait upon themselves. Many parents are ignorant of facts concerning the ability of children to attend to their own wants. Children of school age should be able to dress and undress themselves, go to school unaccompanied, and be able to enter a group of children without self-consciousness. Thoughtful parents are constantly asking how they can help their children to grow up. As a matter of fact, many parents are unconsciously preventing this growth by the overprotection they think of as devotion.

Considering these children in our city schools, it will be seen that the teacher cannot effectively guide their adjustments without knowing about their homes, the mores of their groups, the ideals of their parents, relationships to brothers and sisters, and the personality of the individual child. Although, as has been stated, the problem of the rural and suburban school is somewhat different, nevertheless there are many problems that may confront any child when he first leaves his home and begins his formal education.

The child's adjustment to school is also dependent upon the attitudes that have been built up in the home concerning school. If his parents have criticized the school, or spoken disparagingly of the teachers, he will naturally think that he has the equal right to criticize. Mothers are prone to tell the young child that the teacher will beat him if he is not a good boy, or that she will laugh at him if he does not do as well as his older brothers and sisters. The teacher has to break down these attitudes. It is unfortunate that many teachers do not realize that the child himself is not responsible for his attitude. If he is misunderstood in this respect the teacher may only confirm his preconceived notions rather than help to give him a more wholesome outlook.

Since the school is a social group, the child's adjustment to school is also dependent upon his ability to get along with other children. A boy of six had mathematical abilities far in advance of his chronological age. He was able to give the day of the week upon which future dates would fall. This "stunt" had been a delight to his parents and relatives. When he came to school he tried his "accomplishment" upon the other children and was dismayed that they were not interested. He also learned to his amazement that being able to run and to catch a ball were highly regarded by his classmates. These latter abilities were out of his line. For the first time he found himself defeated in spite of the approbation that had always been his. He disliked school and soon became a problem to his teacher. He was placed in a private school and again

had difficulty in adjusting himself to his classmates. Now in early adolescence he is an unhappy boy in spite of his high I.Q. and his good family background.

If all children were given the opportunity to play with other children, without interference on the part of their parents, in the preschool years, these tragically inadequate personalities would not demand attention as they come into the public school. But too many parents, from fear of contaminations both moral and otherwise, keep their child from necessary contacts with other children; or watch over and supervise their early contacts. As a result the child comes to school unable to hold his own in the group relationships into which he is thrown.

There are many other problems involved for child and teacher in the transition from home to school. Essentially, they all fall into two groups: first, those problems arising out of the necessity of adjusting to new standards and requirements of behavior; and second, those arising out of the necessity of entering into new personal and social relationships. If school and teacher do not understand the child's background of family and community experience, conflict is the inevitable result of the attempt to impose upon him new standards of behavior. If school and teacher, again, fail to estimate accurately the child's independence and adaptability, insecurity is the inevitable result of the many new personal and social relationships in which he finds himself involved. In either case, the child's first experience with the larger world will result in a failure to adjust successfully. At the end of a year of such failure he will be left resentful or bewildered and inadequate. These attitudes, we have ample evidence, are likely to become basic to his outlook, first upon school, and later upon society. There is no overestimating the importance of the transition from home to school. There is no overestimating the school's responsibility for intelligently guiding the child through this transition. There is no overestimating the insight and skill of the classroom teacher who can successfully deal with the problems that arise in the course of this transition.

THE ACTIVITY PROGRAM IN THE NEWARK SCHOOLS FROM A MENTAL-HYGIENE PIONT OF VIEW

HELEN TROLAN

Newark Public Schools

There has been an increasing interest in mental hygiene during the past few years, and clinics have been started in many cities to treat the children who have shown a marked degree of personality maladjustment. Educators have been led to think along the lines of preventive work in the schools, particularly in the primary grades. The school as an institution was for many years thought of only in connection with the learning of skills. In recent years, however, educators have come to realize that this narrow conception of the school is not fitting the child for his future responsibilities.

[We know that in a social organization, when an institution relinquishes any of its work, that work must automatically fall on the shoulders of some other institution in that social organization. The institutions of the home and the church have undergone numerous changes. The lack of mechanical aids in the home of the past necessitated the sharing of tasks and contributed more opportunities for participation in home activity than the present home set-up. As a member of the home each child had his individual responsibilities for the welfare and comfort of the family, and in the performance of his duties the child developed character traits such as independence, resourcefulness, initiative, thoughtfulness, and responsibility. Today, with the changed organization of the home, the father is away all day, the mother is out of the home more than formerly; and almost all recreation is gained outside the home. The unity and independence of the members of a family have been weakened and the opportunities for character training in the home have been diminished. The position of the church in the education and training of children has also

been replaced by other interests. It is because of these changes that educational institutions have of necessity assumed responsibility for character education.

In recent years there has been an increasing consciousness of the need for personality development and character education in the schools. We know that failure in one's work or profession is more often due to a lack in personality adjustment than to a lack of knowledge. The old school gave little thought to the development of the child's personality and often had a decided repressive effect. The child was required to be calm and quiet in the classroom, willing to listen, learning exactly what every other child **learned, speaking only when spoken to**, and was given no opportunity to develop his own interests and talents. The child's initiative was dulled and his interests were curbed. He learned his lessons—often very satisfactorily from a factual point of view. In contrast to this narrow conception of education the new school has developed using various names such as progressive, project method, activity program, unified curriculum, and has a broader definition of education.

The aim of the progressive school is the development of the whole child; *i.e.*, his personality, his emotional stability, his physical condition, and his intellect. Experiments in this type of school were at first limited to the private schools, and for a number of years it was felt that a free program would be impossible in a large city school with classes averaging forty children. It is true that a small group would simplify teaching under any method, but it has been proved that a successful activity program can be carried on with a large group of children.

Newark's activity program was started officially three years ago. Before this, however, there had been a definite trend in many of the schools towards informality in the classroom. In other schools, experiments in the newer methods had been carried on in an attempt to decide which methods best suited a large city school system with large classes. Demonstration lessons and discussion groups were carried on to familiarize the teachers with the new methods,

but there were no hard-and-fast rules for them to follow. Each teacher was allowed as much freedom in working out her unit of work as was desired. Assistance was available from the supervisors; but the supervisors did not visit the classroom except on the invitation of the teacher.

The first two grades of the elementary school were selected to try out the new curriculum. As in other progressive schools, the development of the personality, including initiative, self-confidence, and self-reliance was to be considered of prime importance. Although reading and arithmetic were not to be ignored, neither were they to be considered the paramount aim of the program. The skills were to be developed along the lines of interest rather than through coercion. It was felt that even if the children did not acquire a knowledge of reading and arithmetic in the first two grades, these skills would be acquired much more rapidly when the child became interested or when he was older. This would be particularly advantageous for the dull child.

The transition from home to school has been difficult for many children. Even those who have attended kindergarten have found difficulty in adjusting themselves to a whole day of formal work. The freedom allowed the children simplified this to a great extent, and in planning the course of study an attempt was made to simplify this transition by selecting as the first unit of work a project which was within the experience of every child. The home was chosen as being most familiar to the children. The child, understanding this work, is eager to contribute from his experiences. He is given new and easy social contacts and his emotional dependence on his home is gradually broken down. A discussion period precedes the actual work on the project. Here the children are given experience in social intercourse. Their ideas are treated seriously and, if acceptable to the class, are incorporated in the work of the project. The shy child is encouraged to take part, even if at first it is only a matter of agreeing with a more outspoken child. He is not commanded to be active, but opportunities are made to draw him into the group. The

more officious child learns that he may not monopolize the conversation but must consider the rights of others. His desire to participate is not completely repressed, but is controlled in order that he may learn how to take part in a social group larger than the one at home, and that the other children may not feel it is futile to attempt competition with one so aggressive. In this discussion period the children learn to express themselves freely and to judge their own ideas and those of the other children critically. It provides a setting in which the child may learn to give and receive criticism objectively and impersonally.

Development of individual interests and coöperation with other members of the group are included in the aims of the new program. We know that a child is more interested in the approbation of his own social group than in the opinion of his elders, and that the approval of his group is often an incentive for the child to conform socially. When every child was doing the same work it did not matter to the class whether or not a particular child completed his work, but in carrying out a unit of work each child learns that the success or failure of the project depends upon himself and that failure to finish a task will mean the failure of the project and the disapproval of his classmates. He sees the need of coöperating with the others and feels his responsibility to the group.

The activity program provides every child with a means of success. There is a task for every level of ability and the child gains a feeling of confidence by the successful performance of his own work. He does not attempt abstract academic work before he is ready for it, and even then he progresses at his own rate of speed. The bright child is no longer retarded while the average and dull child learn the work of the grade. Enforced idleness of the bright child was at the root of many careless habits of work and sometimes resulted in behavior problems.

One of the most important features of the activity program in the Newark schools is the rule of one hundred per cent promotion for the first two years. Each child is given a sense of achievement by being promoted regularly

with his age group. At one time the ability to read a certain book or number of words was a requisite to promotion from 1B to 1A. Owing to a feeling of strangeness at the beginning of the term, excessive absence due to illness, or a lack of ability, a high percentage of first-grade children were forced to repeat the grade. A similar happening occurred at the end of each term. The effect of this failure on a small child is difficult to estimate. He starts his school career with the feeling of being incompetent and this leads to a feeling of inferiority. His overt manifestation of grief over the failure may be short-lived, but the feeling of inadequacy and inferiority is more lasting. This retardation also takes him out of his age grouping and keeps him with younger children. In his effort to compensate for the feeling of inferiority he now has, he may discover that the only way in which he is superior is in size and ability to annoy both children and teachers. Many problems of discipline are found in this over-age group.

At home the child who has failed may be scolded and punished; his parents may reject him because he is not a credit to them; and his siblings may taunt him because of his failure. On the other hand the parents may shield the child and rationalize his failure by blaming the school. They may tell the child that he was unfairly treated, thereby giving the child the feeling that the school is against him. In this case the home and school relationship becomes an unfriendly one. Neither of these attitudes on the part of parents is healthy for the child, but they are the reactions in many instances when the school fails to handle the matter of promotion successfully.

Repetition of a grade is sometimes defended by the teacher on the basis that it is better for the child to have an acute but short-lived feeling of failure than to allow him to proceed with the class and have him feel inadequate and inferior to the others during the entire term. In a school in which ability in reading and arithmetic are the sole criteria of success, this is probably true, but in an activity program the school day is so varied that there is an opportunity for each child to be successful at some-

thing. It is also expected that children will be working on different levels and the only comparison made will be of the child's present accomplishment with his past work and not a comparison of two children.

Individualized instruction has to a certain extent decreased the habit of comparing children in order to encourage the laggard to work harder. The comparison of two children under any circumstance is not in accord with mental-hygiene principles and has a deleterious effect on both children. The child unfavorably compared only has his sense of inadequacy strengthened, and the one praised is inclined to feel superior and smug. The informality of the project method gives the teacher an opportunity to learn something of the home situation of each child. It may be gained through conversations with the child or by hearing casual conversations between two children. This knowledge of the child's background enables her to handle the child and his problems more intelligently.

Although the new school is considered and sometimes called a child-centered school, the place of the teacher in the set-up is even more important than formerly. If the new school aims to develop a child who is resourceful, dependable, and reliable, and one who has initiative and independence of thought, it must strive to employ only those teachers who possess these qualities. This type of teaching also requires a teacher with an understanding of mental hygiene. She must be interested in the child as an individual and his development on his own level rather than the academic achievement of the class as a whole.

With this type of teacher to carry out an activity program, both the children and the teacher will enjoy the school day to a greater extent than was possible under the old régime. There is less tension in the classroom and the teacher is not overtired by the effort of keeping forty children quiet, and by attempting to teach every child the lessons of the day regardless of his ability or desire to do the work. The unusual and clever teacher is given an opportunity to use her ability and initiative in teaching in a way that has never been possible before. There is no

barrier in the way of a course of study to prevent her from developing the talents of her class. Her interest in teaching is greater because there is an opportunity for personal growth. We cannot say that the unified curriculum will make a good teacher of a poor one, but it gives the good teacher an opportunity to become a better one.

During the experiment in this work, the teacher has been shown the confidence of the administration in that there has been no critical supervision. The effect of the old type of supervision on the teacher has been varied. In some cases it had been impossible for a teacher to do her best work while the supervisor was present. The tension which she felt had its effect on her handling of the children. Today the function of the supervisor is one of help and constructive criticism. The supervisors of Newark have done research in curriculum revision and have compiled pamphlets for individual teacher reference in each subject. They have been instrumental in having model lessons in the unified curriculum demonstrated by competent teachers, and they are eager to assist any teacher who calls upon them for help.

One of the criticisms of this type of school is that the children do not learn the fundamentals as formerly. It is true that the personality of the child is given more thought than the fundamentals. However, the skills need not be neglected. When the need arises the child learns quickly, and most of the fundamentals are taught in connection with the project. However, present-day educators do not feel that immediate need is the only reason for teaching the skills, for most children enjoy learning new things, and interest in reading and arithmetic can be stimulated by the teacher. The fact that the child has some immediate use for this information helps him to maintain his faith in the teacher's statement that these skills are necessary to him.

Another criticism of the new school is that the learning is "sugar coated"; the argument is that life is not always simple and easy and that children should learn to face difficult situations while they are still young. This indicates

a misunderstanding of the work done in the new school. On the whole the child now works harder over his project, which is a unit in the class project, than he ever did over his more formal work. The difference is in the attitude of the child; in this instance he sees the need himself and having assumed the responsibility for a piece of work does not consider defaulting, whereas in former years the child did the work as a task assigned to him to be done either to escape disapprobation or to gain praise. Either of these attitudes was unhealthy from a mental-hygiene point of view.

Criticisms of the new curriculum have been accepted and studied. In the three years since the instigation of this program changes in policy and methods have been introduced whenever it was necessary to ensure the success of the program. On the whole we feel that the work has been successful from a mental-hygiene point of view and that mental-hygiene principles are being incorporated in our handling of all the school children rather than being used exclusively for children who have shown lack of adjustment. The instigation of this program in the schools and the development of the recreation department which carries on the work after school hours have been two important steps forward in Newark's educational program.

TEACHERS' PERSONALITIES AND THE PROBLEMS OF CHILDREN

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Teacher training, the equipment of those who are to assume a major responsibility in the education of each young generation, is receiving an increasing amount of attention, both from those who train and those who employ. Organization of courses and the content thereof, observation and training in practice, teaching procedures and technique, classroom organization, maintenance of discipline, have all undergone a continuous process of discussion, planning, and reorganization.

One important aspect of the teaching process, however, seems to have escaped attention until recently in all these discussions of teacher equipment—the personality of the teacher. I say escaped attention—perhaps taken for granted would be a better term. Personalities of great teachers have always been recognized and the personality of the teacher in relation to the children has undoubtedly been assumed as a part of the underlying foundation of the handling of content and of teaching technique. It has undoubtedly always been recognized that some teachers attract and inspire young people and others do not; some teachers get along with children and others do not; some teachers have difficulty with the important phase of classroom procedure known as discipline and others do not. Yet consideration of the teaching personality as a part of the basis for selection of those who enter teacher-training institutions is a relatively recent development.

Nevertheless, the "teaching personality" has been receiving more attention than formerly. The mental-hygiene movement, interest in child study, the greater realization of the part that attitudes play in the adjustment of individuals, and the effect of past experience upon the building up of those attitudes have all contributed to the under-

standing and the handling of the developing personalities of children. More slowly, the application of this sociological and psychological knowledge is being applied to the understanding of the similar problems in the personality development of the teacher. For with adults, as well as with children, personality is a "continuous becoming," never a thing achieved.¹

The personality tests used in selection of personnel are examples of this interest in personality. Yet to date, such tests have been inadequate as a means of predicting success in social relationships, or determining with convincing accuracy, fitness for a particular profession. Personality, this dynamic something, bound up in and affecting all social relationships, remains a recognized, fundamental, but to date unmeasurable quality.

Yet, in our day-to-day contacts, personality issues are met and handled or mishandled. School administrators increasingly consider personalities in the organization of the school, in the selection of a teacher for a difficult class, in the placement of a troublesome child with "A," who probably "can get along with him," instead of with "B," who probably cannot. Teachers heave a sigh of relief when Fred or Billy or Susan, whom they "just could not stand anyway," goes on to another class. Parents report to neighbors or friends with a feeling of relief that Billy is "getting along" much better in the fourth grade than he did with his previous teacher. Every visiting teacher in an elementary school has had, at some time or another, the experience of seeing a child's difficulties apparently disappear after a promotion or transfer to a new teacher with a different attitude and a different disciplinary approach, to reappear again later—unless the child has improved in his ability to meet and handle his problem—when another new teacher personality appears upon the scene.

Teachers, school administrators, parents, children alike steadily build up capacities to rate and understand and handle personality issues in daily situations, and many administrators are unusually skillful in recognizing difficulties,

¹Ruth Hardy, "Freeing the Teacher," *Mental Hygiene*, January 1924.

predicting the types of personality that will get along, as we say, and bringing them together. Yet, of the specific underlying factors in personality relationships of teachers and pupils, the whats and the whys, so to speak, there has been little attempt at analysis.

What are some of these factors, with which we all must work in our everyday contacts with children? Personal problems of the teacher are probably one of the primary factors in teacher-pupil relationships, unhappy experiences which may or may not have been successfully handled. Let us take first one of the most common situations we as teachers meet, the type of child or type of behavior we "cannot stand." Those children we cannot endure are frequent subjects of conversations in formal school conferences, or more informal discussions in the lunchrooms or elsewhere where teachers converse. "I could like Jerry, if he weren't always so dirty." "I cannot stand a show-off child." "If there's anything I will not tolerate it's a sneak, or a cheat." "There is absolutely no excuse for his lying the way he does." "I will not have a child in my classroom who steals, or who uses vulgar language." Two elements are always present in such conversations as these. One is the extreme variation in the types of behavior which is not tolerated by those who discuss the problem. The other is the tendency to mete out more severe punishment to the child who presents the behavior that especially offends—this tendency to react emotionally to the behavior rather than to regard it with the much desired objective point of view so much discussed these days.

The variation in attitudes of individuals is in a way fortunate for the children. Otherwise, we would not see the result mentioned above of a child who causes difficulty with one teacher improving miraculously with another. It is frequently fortunate that a little day dreamer or a little show-off can go on from a teacher who can't tolerate such behavior to one who is not as a rule disturbed by it. Nevertheless the question arises—where do we get these attitudes; from whence come our "pet abominations"? Why do we react more violently to show-off actions, or day

dreaming, or dirtiness, or stealing, or sex behavior, or vulgarity? Why can we not attain this much desired objective point of view? The answer undoubtedly is bound up with the fact that we, even as the children, are conditioned by our own past experiences, that we too are working out difficulties in this "continuous becoming" that is personality development, that we too are struggling with fears and insecurity and possible or actual failure. When something a child does or is touches off our own problems, we do as they do, react emotionally in our handling of the child.

The explanation in each instance lies in the individual teacher, who can go a long way in her own understanding if she can stop when she finds some situation especially annoying and ask herself just why she is being so disturbed. The teacher who can then transfer her attention from her own annoyance to a real interest in understanding just what in the child's own situation is causing the behavior has made a first step in the more adequate handling of a personality relationship, and towards an objective point of view.

Aside from the individual situation always admittedly different, it is possible to discuss some general aspects of these pet abominations. An illustration or two may represent one of these ways in which a teacher's own personal problems affect the relationship with a child who unwittingly reminds her of them. The relationship may be constructive or destructive, as we shall see. A teacher recently was discussing with a group a thirteen-year-old girl in her junior-high-school class, a girl who was five feet seven inches tall, awkward, ungainly, self-conscious, ill at ease, avoiding social contacts with the other children. This teacher was "getting along" with the girl, who was showing improvement. The following remark is illuminating. "I think I know how to handle a girl or boy like this. I had reached my full growth at the age of 14, five feet, eight inches. I never will forget my own suffering when I sat in seats too small for me, and towered above the other children; how embarrassed I was every time I had to stand up, or appear before the group. I remember what a sense of security

I had when another girl much older but almost as tall entered the class. I felt less conspicuous when she was there, and I used to watch for her and go in with her. One day when she was absent, I went back home because I couldn't bear to go in without her. I often used to wonder whether the teacher knew how I was feeling every time she asked me to recite before the class, or go to the board. I do not think she did. But I determined that when I went into teaching, I would do all I could to help the overgrown boy or girl to feel comfortable. I know just how they feel."

Another teacher, a man, in the fifth grade, presented the other side of a picture involving personal relationships. In his class was a small boy, a shy, unsocial youngster, rather frail in physique, awkward in movements, given to day dreaming, and having difficult contacts with his classmates, who teased him and called him a "sissy." In general, he caused little trouble in the classroom, yet occasionally he baffled the teacher by attempts to show off, or sudden, unexpected spells of stubbornness. The child had been a "problem," as we say, chiefly because of school failure, from the second grade, and had shown considerable improvement under a general plan of giving him opportunities for success, ignoring his "spells" as much as possible, and trying to persuade his group to tease him less and include him in their games.

The "new" teacher dropped into the office to discuss this child, who had sulked all afternoon, and shown stubbornness at attempts "to make him do his work." The discussion was based on the past record of the boy, the discipline that had seemed to work and that which hadn't. The teacher's comment was, "I think the boy has not had enough firm discipline. This procedure is too 'soft.' He should be made to stand up for himself with the other boys; he should be made to do what he's supposed to do. He is not going to get away with anything in my class." Then at the door, he turned, "If there's anything I cannot stand," he said, "it's a sissy boy."

The principal, who was convinced that his "soft" measures were bringing results, closed the folder that contained

the evidence of those results and looked at the "new" teacher. He saw a man with a slight build, small hands and feet, a rather high voice. The principal had seen evidences of shyness and self-consciousness in the few social contacts in the school. And he probably drew his own conclusions. Why the harsher discipline recommended by the teacher? Why already the attempts to force a child, who only reacted by more sullenness when forced? That parting remark, "I can't stand a sissy boy," gives the clue to the answers. It would suggest to the teacher, if he were able to face it, the deeper reason for his feeling. The chances are that he saw in the child his own unhappy childhood, the inability to compete with stronger boys, because of a frail physique, the jibes and taunts of "sissy," the increasing difficulty in social relationships. And if this is the picture of his own past, the chances are that he will continue to handle sissy boys according to his emotional reaction, rather than according to the evidence in an accumulative record, unless, of course, some miracle enables him to recognize the relationship between him and the child, and to face and work out his own personal problem.

Why did the first teacher handle the problem of the tall child, where the second teacher failed to handle the problem of a sissy boy? The answer is simple, even if the solution is not. The tall teacher had faced her problem and worked through it to the point where there were no sensitive points to cause an emotional reaction. Her experiences had been assimilated and turned into increased understanding. The second teacher had not faced his, nor assimilated them. His own emotional response was touched off by the child who unwittingly reminded him of painful experiences that he had tried to forget. Never accepting his own "sissy" qualities, he refused to accept them in the boy. The solution? The child was transferred to another class at the earliest opportunity.

Another factor in teacher-pupil relationships is bound up with the success and failure of the teacher. Much has been written regarding success and failure in the mental hygiene of childhood, all to the effect that children need

success if they are to develop normally, and likewise need to experience and learn to handle failure. With adults, success and failure and its effect upon emotional growth are equally important. Teachers want to succeed; the general prevalence of extension courses and graduate work, the attendance upon lecture courses, conferences, and the like, are evidence of the teacher's desire to keep abreast of her field. In the face of increasing competition, teachers are striving to be placed on tenure, to achieve a good "rating" by the various supervisors or administrators, to win promotion in the ranks. The teacher who is meeting success is, as we say, secure. The one who feels she is making her way with difficulty, suffers insecurity, and to her, the child who is unmanageable becomes an additional threat.

Acceptance of failure is not always easy, and it is difficult to treat with equanimity the child who represents a failure. James, a handsome, well-built boy, was promoted to the fifth grade "on trial." His I.Q. was 85, but no one, not even the examiner, believed it, until a succession of tests gave a consistent showing. For James was bright eyed, alert in conversation, active in games. He was having increasing difficulty in schoolwork, and more and more prone to sit on the small of his back and lapse into his own fantasies. The fifth-grade teacher liked him; he reminded her of a small nephew of whom she was very fond, she "knew she could interest him and help him bring up his work." She did. With extra encouragement, help after school, constant urging, James did improve . . . for two weeks. Then he slumped more than ever. Additional encouragement, help, and urging were of no avail.

Then one day the teacher came to the office begging to have the child transferred. She "couldn't stand him in her classroom any longer." Inquiry revealed no serious misbehavior. He hadn't been impudent, thrown anything, or kicked anybody. He had merely sat for three days and looked bored.

Why the teacher's outburst? Again, the answer is simpler than the solution. She had failed in a goal she had set

for herself, and in this case an impossible one. James had responded; but when the pressure became too great, he reacted according to the old pattern, removing himself from the scene. For some reason, success in this case meant more than it should have to the teacher. She reacted not in terms of the problem itself, but in terms of her own disappointment in not being able to do what she had set out to do. If she had not set so high a goal of achievement, and if she had not cared quite so much, there might have been no disciplinary issue. And in the very extent of that caring lies the reason for her inability to accept and analyze objectively her failure.

Difference in standards represented by teachers and pupils is a third consideration in relationships. In general, we accept the modes of living to which we have been accustomed; in general, we are repelled by, or at least prone not to accept, situations or conditions that do not meet those standards. The most common behavior that causes an emotional reaction because it runs counter to accepted standards is undoubtedly stealing, lying, and sex offenses. Likewise, home conditions that reveal filth, drunkenness, immorality, shiftlessness, again shock or discourage those dealing with the children whose background is thus described; attitudes that unwittingly may be revealed to the child. What of a child whose father is in a State prison, or whose brother is a gangster, or whose mother is openly living with a succession of men, or who has a relative in a hospital for the insane? We find varying teachers' attitudes in cases such as these, from the one that expresses, "What can you expect with a family like that?" to one that accepts the child as he is and by that very acceptance helps him to believe that he is not necessarily doomed to insanity, immorality, or a criminal career.

We think often of these things in terms of comparison to our own standards; but do we as often think of the difficult adjustment of a child of six or seven or eight who realizes that his parents, whom he has accepted in his babyhood, and perhaps even respected or loved, are not accepted by his teacher or his classmates. If this thing

the sociologists call "status" is essential to normal development, such a child starts handicapped; and maladjustment, if his lack is sufficiently acute, is inevitable. There is no person in such a child's life whose rôle is more important than a teacher's, no one who can do as much to help build his self-respect—provided she can lay aside her own feelings towards the circumstances that surround him.

A little boy of nine, sensitive, shy, retiring, was failing in school, and given to day dreaming. A teacher discovered that the year before his mother had deserted him, running off with a man with whom she was living openly without the formality of divorce and remarriage. The child was being cared for by the maternal grandparents and an aunt who felt so disgraced by the whole affair that they were ashamed to meet their friends. The mother's name was never mentioned in the home, and the child's questions concerning his mother had met only with inadequate explanations.

The home condition may not necessarily be the cause of the failure or day dreaming. But whether it is or not, a teacher who looks for causes would recognize that this child is facing a difficult problem. She would know that he needed to be accepted, and if the relationship with his mother was a close one, he needed to have his mother accepted. A teacher who could fill such a need, who could help the child achieve an attitude that he need not feel forever disgraced, that while such things just aren't done in our present social world, nevertheless they do sometimes happen—who could talk to him about his mother and appreciate with him all the good qualities she possessed—would be doing far more for the development of this child than could be achieved by a direct attempt to rouse him from his day dream to attend to the immediate classwork. Tolerance towards behavior outside the usual is as much a part of the equipment of a teacher as academic knowledge or technical skill.

An entirely objective point of view towards the children who pass through our classrooms year after year is probably unattainable. As long as we are people in the process

of "becoming," we shall probably always like some children better than others; we shall probably react emotionally to failure, or to threats to our security, or to behavior that shocks or offends us because it is not in accord with our standards of right or wrong. Nevertheless, the achievement of such a point of view should be one of the teacher's goals. The teacher who is able to analyze the reasons why she cannot endure certain children, and deal with them so that they are made as little as possible aware of her feeling towards them; the teacher who is able to face her failures squarely and without too much emotion; the teacher who is steadily growing in tolerance for and capacity to understand behavior which she with her own standards cannot accept, whose very attitude towards the child who is "different" makes him feel comfortable in her presence—she is the teacher who is able to understand and handle successfully her personality relationships. She is in the process of attaining this thing called a mature personality, and she is the one to whom we will want to send our children for instruction and guidance.

RECENT LITERATURE

The following recent books in the field of Guidance have been critically read by the reviewing staff of THE JOURNAL, and are recommended as valuable additions to the guidance shelf of every school library. They are among the outstanding books published in this field.

ADMINISTRATION OF GUIDANCE FOR THE NORMAL CHILD

- Management and Teaching Technique*, by GEORGE A. RETAN. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1933, 370 pages.
- The Rôle of the Teacher in Personnel Work*, by RUTH STRANG. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933, 332 pages.
- Guidance in Secondary Schools*, by LEONARD V. KOOS and GRAYSON N. KEFAUVER. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932, 640 pages.
- Adjusting the School to the Child*, by CARLETON WASHBURN. Yonkers: World Book Company, 1932, 189 pages.
- Fitting the School to the Child*, by PAUL R. MORT, W. W. WRIGHT, and W. B. FEATHERSTONE. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932, 141 pages.
- Provisions for Individual Differences, Marking, and Promotion*, by ROY O. BILLETT. Washington: United States Government Printing Office, 1933, 471 pages.
- Annual and Semi-Annual Promotion*, by J. ARMOUR LINDSAY. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933, 170 pages.
- A Study of Ability Grouping in the Elementary Schools*, by PARL WEST. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933, 70 pages.

SOCIAL INFLUENCES ON THE ATTITUDES OF THE CHILD

- Social Development in Young Children*, by SUSAN ISAACS. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Company, 1933, 480 pages.
- Character in Human Relations*, by HUGH HARTSHORNE. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1932, 367 pages.
- Motion Pictures and the Social Attitudes of Children*, by RUTH C. PETERSON. *The Social Conduct Attitudes of Movie Fans*, by FRANK K. SHUTTLEWORTH and MARK A. MAY. (Bound in one volume.) New York: The Macmillan Company, 1933, 142 pages.
- Motion Pictures and Conduct*, by HERBERT BLUMER. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1933, 257 pages.
- Sex in Childhood*, by ERNEST R. GROVES and GLADYS HOAGLAND GROVES. New York: The Macaulay Company, 1933, 247 pages.
- The Family*, by ERNEST R. MOWRER. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1932, 364 pages.
- A Bibliography on Family Relationships*, by FLORA M. THURSTON. New York: National Council of Parent Education, 1932, 273 pages.

ADOLESCENT PROBLEMS

- Adolescent Psychology*, by ADA HART ARLITT. New York: American Book Company, 1933, 250 pages.
- The Adolescent Boy*, by WINIFRED V. RICHMOND. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, 1933, 233 pages.
- Adolescent Girlhood*, by MARY CHADWICK. New York: The John Day Company, 1932, 303 pages.
- Case Studies of Normal Adolescent Girls*, by ELSIE M. SMITHIES. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1933, 283 pages.

EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

- The Handicapped Child*, Report of the Committee on Physically and Mentally Handicapped, of the White House Conference. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1933, 452 pages.
- A Comparison of the Intelligence of Deaf and Hearing Children*, by KEITH MACKANE. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933, 47 pages.
- The Education of Visually Handicapped Children*, by RALPH VICKERS MERRY. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1933, 243 pages.
- Teachers' Problems with Exceptional Children—I. Blind and Partially Seeing Children*, by BEATRICE McLEOD. Pamphlet No. 40. Washington: United States Government Printing Office, 1933, 32 pages.
- The Blind in School and Society*, by THOMAS D. CUTSFORTH. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1933, 263 pages.
- Lateral Dominance and Visual Fusion* (a study of eyedness and handedness), by CHARLES A. SELZER. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1933, 119 pages.
- The Disabled Man and His Vocational Adjustment*, by ROY N. ANDERSON. New York: Institute for the Crippled and Disabled, 1932, 102 pages.
- Teachers' Problems with Exceptional Children—II. Gifted Children*, by ELSIE H. MARTENS. Pamphlet No. 41. Washington: United States Government Printing Office, 1933, 45 pages.
- Administration of Enrichment for Superior Children in the Typical Classroom*, J. EDGAR DRANSFIELD. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933, 105 pages.

SOCIAL AND EMOTIONAL MALADJUSTMENTS

- Juvenile Delinquency*, by WALTER C. RECKLESS and MAPHEUS SMITH. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1932, 412 pages.
- Movies, Delinquency and Crime*, by HERBERT BLUMER and PHILIP M. HAUSER. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1933, 233 pages.
- 660 Runaway Boys*, by CLAIRETTE P. ARMSTRONG. Boston: Richard G. Badger, 1932, 208 pages.
- Psychiatry in Education*, by V. V. ANDERSON and WILLIE MAUDE KENNEDY. New York: Harper & Bros., 1932, 430 pages.
- The Dynamics of Therapy*, by JESSIE TAFT. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1933, 296 pages.
- The Approach to the Parent—A Study in Social Treatment*, by ESTHER HEATH. New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1933, 163 pages.

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

In order that this section of THE JOURNAL may be of the greatest possible service, its readers are urged to send at once to the editor of this department titles—and where possible descriptions—of current research projects now in process in educational sociology and also those projects in kindred fields of interest to educational sociology. Correspondence upon proposed projects and methods will be welcomed.

A number of interesting research projects were reported upon at the Twenty-eighth Annual Meeting of the American Sociological Society which was held in Philadelphia from December 27 to 30, 1933.

The following abstract presents the gist of a paper given in the section on social statistics of the Society by Mrs. Sophie M. Robison of the Welfare Council of New York City under the title "The Apparent Influence of the Factors of Race and Nationality on the Extent of Juvenile Delinquent Behavior in New York City in the Year 1930."¹

This study was undertaken because of the urgent need for a juvenile delinquency index in New York City. Issue was taken with a method of studying delinquency by neighborhoods in Shaw's Delinquency Areas, in the Wickersham Report, and in the New York State Crime Commission Study. The claim is made that this method is invalid both for the calculation of the numerators and denominators.

Appropriate numerators for delinquency rates should include evidences of delinquent conduct, known officially and unofficially, proscribed by the children's court code, because of the operation of group mores which influence: (1) the labeling of behavior as delinquent; (2) the extent to which outside assistance is requested; and (3) the set-up of unofficial agencies for substitutive care. The inconclusion of alleged as well as adjudged delinquency and the lack of standardizing for types of offense, age, and sex is also questionable. The validity of rates based on the geographic unit of population is contested. When the usual formulae are applied, these rates no longer hold. Although the formulae were all developed by empirical examination of data in the physical sciences; when we apply them to the social sciences, and particularly to the area rates in these other studies we discover that the requirements of the formulae of mutual independence of the factors are not met. A rate based on geography alone is therefore suspect.

The data of the present study are the 18,308 children, resident in New York City and known during the year 1930 to fifty odd agencies,

¹This abstract is reprinted from the *Manual of Abstracts* of the paper read at the Twenty-eighth Annual Meeting of the American Sociological Society, December 27 to 30, 1933, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, pp. 24-25.

public, private, sectarian, nonsectarian, field and institutional for behavior proscribed as delinquent by New York City's Juvenile Court Code. Of these cases 7,090 were known to the court. Only 3,979 were held for care. When this figure is compared with the total delinquents known to other agencies, it is obvious that the court neither measures the extent of delinquent conduct in the cosmopolitan city like New York, nor the extent of serious offenses. Sex and age are also differential characteristics.

Delinquency in New York City is definitely set in terms of foreign-born or mixed-parentage families, but to very different degrees. In the Protestant group the distribution of native white, native parentage, and foreign-born or mixed parentage more nearly approaches the distribution of these two groups in the city as a whole. For the Catholics the per cent of native born is half what it is in the white Protestant and three times what it is in the Jewish.

This would seem to point to racial stock as a real differential. The reckoning of valid rates depends upon some basis of random sampling which will meet the requirements of a bell-shaped distribution not met by data arranged on the basis of residence alone.

BOOK REVIEWS

The Evolving Common School, by HENRY C. MORRISON.
Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1933, 62 pages.

The 1933 Inglis Lecture on Secondary Education gives a brief picture of the movement from continuous to discontinuous educational organization in American public schools and what the writer conceives to be a return to the continuous. Dr. Morrison also states again his functional conception of secondary education elaborated in his *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary Schools*.

The Auditorium Social Arts, by HARRY GRAVES MILLER and NEWTON W. CHAFFEE. New York: D. C. Heath and Company, 1932, 413 pages.

A clear and direct discussion of auditorium activities in elementary schools and junior and senior high schools. Theoretical considerations are based on years of practical experience in constructing varied auditorium social arts. A descriptive review of auditorium practices in several progressive cities, a brief statement of the problems of teachers and the various school officials, and bibliographical teaching aids make this volume a contribution in an area in which as yet but meager professional guidance is available.

Study Guide in Secondary Education, by EDGAR M. DRAPER and ALEXANDER C. ROBERTS. New York: The Century Company, 1933, 151 pages.

This book, representing the unit idea of subject matter applied to the study of principles of secondary education, is planned to meet the needs of inexperienced undergraduate students in colleges and universities, of mature and experienced students, of extension classes, and of correspondence classes. Part I contains the thirteen basic units, each consisting of a "library research unit" and a "laboratory unit." Part II contains twenty-two units similarly divided but of a more advanced character.

Talents and Temperaments, by ANGUS McCRAE. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1933, 211 pages.

This is a popular presentation of the status of organized programs of guidance written by Angus McCrae, who is the head of the vocational guidance department of the National Institute of Industrial Psychology. The author claims to have written no more than a short introduction to the subject. However, he has written it well. It is interesting to note that the problems in this field in the British Isles differ but slightly from the problems faced in this country, and the same unanswerable questions which we have had to face are raised across the water. One who is unacquainted with the field of guidance will find in this book an easily read discussion of the major aspects. The average parent who expects wonders from anything labeled guidance would learn from a reading of this book the essential limitations of even the best work, not only in this country but also in Europe.

Rural Adult Education, by BENSON Y. LANDIS and JOHN D. WILLARD. New York: The Macmillan Company, xiii+229 pages.

This book is a record of the results of research conducted over a period of four years by the American Association for Adult Education under a grant from the Carnegie Corporation of New York. Part I is devoted to a clear-cut analysis of rural America and the social and economic factors which have produced fundamental changes in rural group relations. Part II is an analysis of the purpose, nature, and extent of the various agencies for adult education. Specific results of several community studies in adult education, including the development of the cultural arts and folk schools, are included. Part III presents definite plans for the improvement of rural adult education through the development of leadership from within supplemented by greater financial resources by governmental and voluntary means, and more adequate county, State, and national planning.

History of Norwegian Literature, by THEODORE JORGENSEN. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1933, 559 pages.

As the title and the number of pages would imply, this is a full and compendious chronicle of the literature of Norway. It gives an adequate account of the early centuries, of the runes, the Eddas, the sagas,

and the folk and religious literature; and it traces skillfully the effect of medieval humanism, the age of Holberg, and the growth of the nationalistic feeling. But the main emphasis of the book is upon the literature of the last hundred years, with special attention to recent and contemporary movements and authors.

Research Barriers in the South, by WILSON GEE. New York: The Century Company, 1932, 192 pages.

The title of this study is somewhat deceptive. Its scope is limited to a study of the opportunities for research afforded professors in forty-two southern universities and colleges as compared with those afforded professors in fifty-seven northern and western higher institutions of learning. The study suggests that the South is steadily losing its intellectual leadership to the North and West where superior advantages for individual accomplishment are to be found. Conclusions of the study show that the average southern professor earns one third less than his colleagues in other parts of the nation; that the accuracy of the prevailing impression to the effect that living is cheaper in the South is questionable; that the southern professor carries a teaching load approximately thirty per cent greater than his northern or western colleagues; and that this heavier teaching load has a detrimental influence upon the quality of teaching in southern educational institutions and limits research work of a scholarly and constructive nature. Corrective measures are suggested.

The Individual and the Community, by WEN KWEI LIAO. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1933, 314 pages.

The author is professor of philosophy in the University of Nanking. The descriptive subtitle indicates the character of the work as "a historical analysis of the motivating factors of social conduct." Chinese, Sanskrit, and Pali texts are utilized, as well as those of Western culture. The theses of the book are: The individual is essentially a product of the community; by chance the individual may become a guide of the community; and that life is chance (cf. tychism).

Young Lonigan, by JAMES T. FARRELL. New York: Vanguard Press, 1932, xii+308 pages.

The reader lives with Young Lonigan for a few short months beginning with his graduation from St. Patrick's elementary school, through the idle summer on Chicago streets and the first few weeks in a public high school. He follows the hidden thoughts and overt acts of this typical, adolescent youth of the city through the many and bitter conflicts between home, church, and gang standards, and witnesses the gradual but consistent loss of his idealism and the conquest of the gang. The book is written with a frankness that may jar the sensitivities of some, but as Dr. Thrasher states in the foreword: "It is a true portrayal of life in the gangland area of Chicago or any other of our large cities."

BOOKS RECEIVED

- Administration of Enrichment to Superior Children in the Typical Classroom*, by J. EDGAR DRANSFIELD. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.
- Adolescence: Life's Spring Cleaning Time*, by BEVERLY R. TUCKER. Boston: Stratford Company.
- Americans at Play*, by JESSE FREDERICK STEINER. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.
- Annual and Semi-Annual Promotion*, by J. ARMOUR LINDSAY. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.
- Birth Control in Practice*, by MARIE E. KOPP. New York: Robert M. McBride & Company.
- Comparison of the Intelligence of Deaf and Hearing Children*, by KEITH MACKANE. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.
- County as an Administrative Unit for Social Work*, by MARY RUTH COLBY. Bureau Publication No. 224. Washington: United States Government Printing Office.
- Education on the Air*, edited by JOSEPHINE H. MACLATCHY. Fourth Yearbook of the Institute for Education by Radio. Columbus: Ohio State University.
- Emile Durkheim on the Division of Labor in Society*, by GEORGE SIMPSON. New York: The Macmillan Company.
- Health and Environment*, by EDGAR SYDENSTRICKER. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.
- Heredity and Environment*, by GLADYS C. SCHWESINGER. New York: The Macmillan Company.
- Income, Savings and Work of Boys and Girls on Farms in New York, 1930*, by HOWARD W. BEERS. Bulletin No. 560, May 1933. Ithaca: Cornell University Agricultural Experiment Station.
- Insect and Other Injuries to Potato Tubers*, by G. F. MACLEOD and W. A. RAWLINS. Bulletin No. 569, June 1933. Ithaca: Cornell University Agricultural Experiment Station.
- Intelligent Man's Review of Europe Today*, by G. D. H. COLE and MARGARET COLE. New York: Alfred A. Knopf.
- Introduction to Progressive Education (The Activity Method)*, by SAMUEL E. BURR. Cincinnati: C. A. Gregory Company.
- Maze Test and Mental Differences*, by STANLEY D. PORTEUS. Vineland, New Jersey: Smith Printing and Publishing House.
- Motion Pictures and the Social Attitudes of Children*, by RUTH C. PETERSON and L. L. THURSTONE. Payne Fund Studies on Motion Pictures and Youth. New York: The Macmillan Company.
- Movies and Conduct*, by HERBERT BLUMER. Payne Fund Studies on Motion Pictures and Youth. New York: The Macmillan Company.

- Movies, Delinquency and Crime*, by HERBERT BLUMER and PHILIP M. HAUSER. Payne Fund Studies on Motion Pictures and Youth. New York: The Macmillan Company.
- Negro Child Welfare in North Carolina*, A Rosenwald Study, directed by Wiley Britton Sanders. Chapel Hill, N. C.: University of North Carolina Press.
- New Backgrounds of Science*, by Sir James Jeans. New York: The Macmillan Company.
- Nervous Breakdown*, by W. Béran Wolfe. New York: Farrar and Rinehart.
- On Teaching English*, by Howard Francis Seely. New York: American Book Company.
- Our Common Enemy: Colds*, by the editors of *Fortune* in consultation with eminent physicians. New York: Robert M. McBride & Company.
- Our Movie-Made Children*, by Henry James Forman. New York: The Macmillan Company.
- Outline for Study of Children in Schools*, by EDNA W. BAILEY, ANITA D. LATON, and ELIZABETH L. BISHOP. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

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